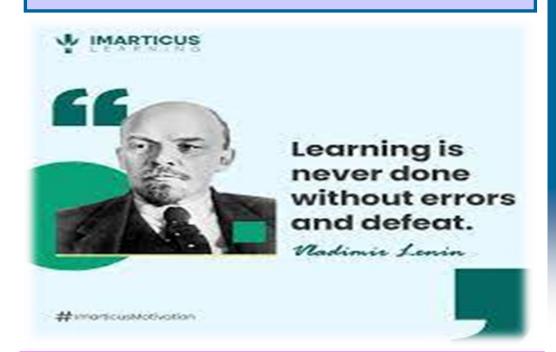
Greatest Of All Times

108 G O A

Globally selected
PERSONALITIES





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21 Jan 1924



https://www.marxists.org/archive/lenin/works/index.htm

{Kindly click the Web LINKS given herein}

Collected Works

The Collected Works of Vladimir Lenin, as published by Progress Publishers (and Foreign Languages Press) in the U.S.S.R. These volumes are in progress and need to be completed: 39, 40.

- A specific to-do list of remaining work on the CW is available here.
- To help out, contact the **LIA Director>**. (Spanish is next!)

Selected Works

A list of Lenin's writings selected by the Editors of the V.I. Lenin Internet Archive for their political influence and significance, historical value and reflection of Lenin's beliefs.

Year Index

Partial list of texts arranged by year. Refer to collected works index for a list of completed volumes.

All Works-By Title

This is a "quick reference" guide with 4,170 of a potential 4,500 documents listed in one long file (160k) and organized alphabetically by title only. It is presented in a very simple list format.

[This a work in progress and not fully completed yet]

All Works—By Date

This is a "quick reference" guide with 4,170 of a potential 4,500 documents listed in one long file (160k) and organized by date. It is presented in a very simple list format. [This a work in progress and not fully completed yet]

Lenin Subject Index

Various key works of Lenin arranged by subject [Always under construction!]

Lenin Quotes

Quotes from Lenin, linked to the context from which the quote is taken — the only authentic, sourced list of Lenin quotes on the internet.



LENIN

Photos/Pictures

https://www.marxists.org/archive/lenin/photo/index.htm {Kindly click the Web LINKS given herein}



Lenin's family and youth	
<u>1895 - 1917</u>	
<u>1908</u>	Lenin giving speeches

<u>1918</u>	Lenin's signatures
<u>1919</u>	
<u>1920</u>	
<u>1921</u>	
<u>1922</u>	
<u>1923</u>	
Death and burial	
VIDEO of Lenin in a courtyard	
VIDEO of Lenin speaking at various places	
<u>Various artists renditions of Lenin</u>	

What kind of a man was Lenin? What was he like on the platform or behind the table in the presidium, when speaking with comrades, peasant delegates, foreign guests and in the rare moments of leisure amidst kith and kin? What was he like when reading, when listening to fellow speakers, when amused or angry, when in sorrow or thought? How did he walk and speak, what were his specific features and expressions?

I have organized several hundred photographs of Lenin in chronological order, as well as sections such as "Lenin giving speeches", and his "Signatures". In the near future I hope to have another 400 photographs taken from film clips, and also arrange them in chronological order.

His unbending will, strength of mind and modesty, his cheerful disposition and sociability, devoid of pose or affected mannerisms, could not eclipse his charm and greatness.

I hope that this collection, perhaps one of the worlds largest, will show Lenin as who he really was. A human being, a genius, — a person with a will that would not sway to doubt, misery, or poverty.

Some photographs may seem to be identical but they aren't. There is not one photograph that is identical. If it seems that way it might be because the only difference is a slight movement, a different person in the frame, etc. If there are any errors on these pages, missing links, bad photographs, spelling errors, incorrect explanations, etc., please contact me by e-mail.

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LENIA

LENIN INTERNET ARCHIVE
BIOGRAPHICAL PORTRAITS

https://www.marxists.org/archive/lenin/bio/index.htm {Kindly click the Web LINKS given herein}

Biography:

Encyclopedia of Marxism

The Life and Work of V. I. Lenin

The Encyclopædia Britannica 1939, Entry submitted by Leon Trotsky

Lenin and the Bourgeois Press, Boris Baluyev

Timeline

V. I. Lenin the Story Of His Life, 1973, by Maria Prilezhayeva

Portraits of Lenin:

1918: by Anatoly Lunacharsky

Commissariat of Education

1922: by Louise Byrant

An American reporter, written from late 1921 to early 1923

1924: by Karl Kautsky

A German Socialist

1925: by Leon Trotsky

By one of Lenin's closest co-thinkers 1933: by N.K. Krupskaya

Lenin's life-long companion

Interviews of Lenin:

1919: Chapter 13 & Chapter 28

Interviewed by Arthur Ransome, an English journalist, in his book Russia in 1919.

1919: by Ludovic Naudeau, March

Published in the The Manchester Guardian.

1919: by W. T. Goode, 21 October

An English reporter from The Manchester Guardian.

LERIA

https://www.marxists.org/romana/audio/index.htm

Lenin's Speeches on Gramophone Records



Recorded:1919-1921

Allert Te Coulet Dames

What Is Soviet Power?

<u>In Memory of Comrade Yakov Mikhailovich Sverdlov,</u>
<u>Chairman of the All-Russia Central Executive</u>
Committee

The Third, Communist International

<u>Communication on the Wireless Negotiations with</u> Béla Kun

An Appeal to the Red Army

How the Working People Can Be Saved From the Oppression of the Landowners and Capitalists For Ever

Anti-Jewish Pogroms

On labour discipline

The task of restoring the transport systems



Pladimir LEAIA

https://www.britannica.com/biography/Vladimir-Lenin

Vladimir Lenin (born April 10 [April 22, New Style], 1870, Simbirsk, Russia—died January 21, 1924, Gorki [later Gorki Leninskiye], near Moscow) was the founder of the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks), inspirer and leader of the Bolshevik Revolution (1917), and the architect, builder, and first head (1917–24) of the Soviet state. He was the founder of the organization known as Comintern (Communist International) and the posthumous source of "Leninism," the doctrine codified and conjoined with Karl Marx's works by Lenin's successors to form Marxism-Leninism, which became the Communist worldview.



Vladimir Lenin, statue in Oryol, Russia.

If the <u>Bolshevik Revolution</u> is—as some people have called it—the most significant political event of the 20th century, then Lenin must for good or ill be regarded as the century's most significant political leader. Not only in the scholarly circles of the former <u>Soviet Union</u> but even among many non-Communist scholars, he has been regarded as both the greatest revolutionary leader and revolutionary statesman in history, as well as the greatest revolutionary thinker since Marx.

Early life

The making of a revolutionary



Little Octobrist badge with a portrait of a young Vladimir Ilich Lenin.

It is difficult to identify any particular events in his childhood that might prefigure his turn onto the path of a professional revolutionary. Vladimir Ilich Ulyanov was born in Simbirsk, which was renamed Ulyanovsk in his honour. (He adopted the pseudonym Lenin in 1901 during his clandestine party work after exile in Siberia.) He was the third of six children born into a close-knit, happy family of highly educated and cultured parents. His mother was the daughter of a physician, while his father, though the son of a serf, became a schoolteacher and rose to the position of inspector of schools. Lenin, intellectually gifted, physically strong, and reared in a warm, loving home, early displayed a voracious passion for learning. He graduated from high school ranking first in his class. He distinguished himself in Latin and Greek and seemed destined for the life of a classical scholar. When he was 16, nothing in Lenin indicated a future rebel, still less a professional revolutionary—except, perhaps, his turn to atheism. But, despite the comfortable circumstances of their upbringing, all five of the Ulyanov children who reached maturity joined the revolutionary movement. This was not an uncommon phenomenon in tsarist Russia, where even the highly educated and cultured intelligentsia were denied elementary civil and political rights.

As an adolescent Lenin suffered two blows that unquestionably influenced his subsequent decision to take the path of revolution. First, his father was threatened shortly before his untimely death with premature retirement by a reactionary government that had grown fearful of the spread of public education. Second, in 1887 his beloved eldest brother, Aleksandr, a student at the University of <u>St. Petersburg</u> (later renamed Leningrad State University), was hanged for conspiring with a revolutionary terrorist group that plotted to assassinate Emperor <u>Alexander III</u>. Suddenly, at age 17, Lenin became the male head of the family, which was now stigmatized as having reared a "state criminal."



Fortunately the income from his mother's pension and <u>inheritance</u> kept the family in comfortable circumstances, although it could not prevent the frequent imprisonment or exile of her children. Moreover, Lenin's high school principal (the father of <u>Aleksandr Kerensky</u>, who was later to lead the Provisional government deposed by Lenin's Bolsheviks in November [October, O.S.] 1917) did not turn his back on the "criminal's" family. He courageously wrote a character reference that smoothed Lenin's admission to a university.

In autumn 1887 Lenin enrolled in the faculty of law of the imperial <u>Kazan</u> University (later renamed Kazan [V.I. Lenin] State University), but within three months he was expelled from the school, having been accused of participating in an illegal student assembly. He was arrested and banished from Kazan to his grandfather's estate in the village of Kokushkino, where his older sister Anna had already been ordered by the police to reside. In the autumn of 1888, the authorities permitted him to return to Kazan but denied him readmission to the university. During this period of enforced idleness, he met exiled revolutionaries of the older generation and avidly read revolutionary political literature, especially Marx's *Das Kapital*. He became a Marxist in January 1889.

Formation of a revolutionary party of Vladimir Lenin

In May 1889 the Ulyanov family moved to <u>Samara</u> (known as Kuybyshev from 1935 to 1991). After much petitioning, Lenin was granted permission to take his law examinations. In November 1891 he passed his examinations, taking a first in all subjects, and was graduated with a first-class degree. After the police finally waived their political objections, Lenin was admitted to the bar and practiced law in Samara in 1892–93, his clients being mainly poor peasants and <u>artisans</u>. In his experience practicing law, he acquired an intense loathing for the class bias of the legal system and a lifelong revulsion for lawyers, even those who claimed to be Social-Democrats.

Law proved to be an extremely useful cover for a revolutionary activist. He moved to St. Petersburg (from 1914 to 1924 known as Petrograd; from 1924 to 1991 known as Leningrad) in August 1893 and, while working as a public defender, associated with revolutionary Marxist circles. In 1895 his comrades sent him abroad to make contact with Russian exiles in western Europe, especially with Russia's most commanding Marxist thinker, Georgy Plekhanov. Upon his return to Russia in 1895, Lenin and other Marxists, including L. Martov, the future leader of the Mensheviks, succeeded in unifying the Marxist groups of the capital in an organization known as the Union for the Struggle for the Liberation of the Working Class. The Union issued leaflets and proclamations on the workers' behalf, supported workers' and <u>infiltrated</u> workers' education classes to impart to them the rudiments of Marxism. In December 1895, the leaders of the Union were arrested. Lenin was jailed for 15 months and thereafter was sent into exile to Shushenskoye, in Siberia, for a term of three years. He was joined there in exile by his fiancée, Nadezhda Krupskaya, a Union member, whom he had met in the capital. They were married in Siberia, and she indispensable Lenin's secretary and comrade. conducted <u>clandestine</u> party correspondence and <u>collaborated</u> (legally) on a Russian translation of Sidney and Beatrice Webb's Industrial Democracy.

Upon completing his term of Siberian exile in January 1900, Lenin left the <u>country</u> and was joined later by Krupskaya in <u>Munich</u>. His first major task abroad was to join Plekhanov, Martov, and three other editors in bringing out the newspaper <u>Iskra</u> ("The Spark"), which they hoped would unify the Russian Marxist groups that were scattered throughout Russia and western Europe into a <u>cohesive</u> Social-Democratic party.

Up to the point at which Lenin began working on *Iskra*, his writings had taken as their focus three problems: first, he had written a number of leaflets that aimed to shake

the workers' traditional veneration of the <u>tsar</u> by showing them that their harsh life was caused, in part, by the support tsarism rendered the capitalists; second, he attacked those self-styled Marxists who urged Social-Democrats and workers to concentrate on wage and hour issues, leaving the political struggle for the present to the bourgeoisie; third, and ultimately most important, he addressed himself to the <u>peasant</u> question.

The principal obstacle to the acceptance of Marxism by many of the Russian intelligentsia was their adherence to the widespread belief the Populists (Russian pre-Marxist radicals) that Marxism was inapplicable to peasant Russia, in which a proletariat (an industrial working class) was almost nonexistent. Russia, they believed, was immune to capitalism, owing to the circumstances of joint ownership of peasant land by the village commune. This view had been first attacked by Plekhanov in the 1880s. Plekhanov had argued that Russia had already entered the capitalist stage, looking for evidence to the rapid growth of industry. Despite the denials of the Populists, he claimed, the man of the future in Russia was indeed the proletarian, not the peasant. While attempting to apply the Marxist scheme of social development to Russia, Plekhanov had come to the conclusion that the revolution in Russia would have to pass through two discrete stages: first, a bourgeois revolution that would establish a democratic republic and full-blown capitalism; and second, a proletarian revolution after mature capitalism had generated a numerous proletariat that had attained a high level of political organization, socialist consciousness, and <u>culture</u>, enabling them to usher in full Socialism.

It was this set of principles that Lenin adhered to after he read Plekhanov's work in the late 1880s. But, almost immediately, Lenin went a step beyond his former mentor, especially with regard to the peasant question. In an attack on the Populists published in 1894, Lenin charged that, even if they realized their fondest dream and divided all the land among the peasant communes, the result would not be <u>Socialism</u> but rather capitalism spawned by a <u>free market</u> in agricultural produce. The "Socialism" put forth by the Populists would in practice favour the development of small-scale capitalism; hence the Populists were not Socialists but "petty bourgeois democrats." Lenin came to the conclusion that outside of Marxism, which aimed ultimately to abolish the market system as well as the private ownership of the means of production, there could be no Socialism.

Even while in exile in Siberia, Lenin had begun research on his investigation of the peasant question, which culminated in his magisterial <u>Development of Capitalism in Russia</u> (published legally in 1899). In this work, a study of Russian economics, he argued that <u>capitalism</u> was rapidly destroying the <u>peasant commune</u>. The peasantry <u>constituted</u> for the Populists a <u>homogeneous social class</u>, but Lenin claimed that the peasantry was in actuality rapidly stratifying into a well-off rural <u>bourgeoisie</u>, a middling peasantry, and an impoverished rural "proletariat and semi-proletariat." In this last group, which <u>comprised</u> half the peasant population, Lenin found an ally for the extremely small industrial proletariat in Russia.

Iskra's success in recruiting Russian <u>intellectuals</u> to Marxism led Lenin and his comrades to believe that the time was ripe to found a revolutionary Marxist party that

would weld together all the <u>disparate</u> Marxist groups at home and abroad. An abortive First Congress, held in 1898 in <u>Minsk</u>, had failed to achieve this objective, for most of the delegates were arrested shortly after the congress. The organizing committee of the Second Congress decided to <u>convene</u> the congress in <u>Brussels</u> in 1903, but police pressure forced it to transfer to <u>London</u>.

The congressional sessions wore on for nearly three weeks, for no point appeared too trivial to debate. The main issues, nevertheless, quickly became plain: eligibility for membership and the character of party discipline; but, above all, the key questions centred around the relation between the party and the proletariat, for whom the party claimed to speak.

In his <u>What Is To Be Done?</u> (1902), Lenin totally rejected the standpoint that the proletariat was being driven spontaneously to revolutionary Socialism by capitalism and that the party's role should be to merely coordinate the struggle of the proletariat's <u>diverse</u> sections on a national and international scale. Capitalism, he contended, predisposed the workers to the acceptance of Socialism but did not spontaneously make them conscious Socialists. The proletariat by its own efforts in the everyday struggle against the capitalist could go so far as to achieve "trade-union consciousness." But the proletariat could not by its own efforts grasp that it would be possible to win complete emancipation only by overthrowing capitalism and building Socialism, unless the party from without infused it with Socialist consciousness.

In his *What Is To Be Done?* and in his other works dealing with party organization, Lenin <u>articulated</u> one of his most momentous political <u>innovations</u>, his theory of the party as the "vanguard of the proletariat." He conceived of the vanguard as a highly <u>disciplined</u>, centralized party that would work unremittingly to suffuse the proletariat with Socialist consciousness and serve as mentor, leader, and guide, constantly showing the proletariat where its true class interests lie.

At the Second Congress the *Iskra* group split, and Lenin found himself in a minority of opinion on this very issue. Nevertheless, he continued to develop his view of "the party of a new type," which was to be guided by "democratic centralism," or absolute party <u>discipline</u>. According to Lenin the party had to be a highly centralized body organized around a small, ideologically homogeneous, hardened core of experienced professional revolutionaries, who would be elected to the central committee by the party congress and who would lead a ramified <u>hierarchy</u> of lower party organizations that would enjoy the support and sympathy of the proletariat and all groups opposed to tsarism. "Give us an organization of revolutionaries," Lenin exclaimed, "and we will overturn Russia!"

Lenin spared no effort to build just this kind of party over the next 20 years, despite fierce attacks on his position by some of his closest comrades of the *Iskra* days, Plekhanov, Martov, and Leon Trotsky. They charged that his scheme of party organization and discipline tended toward "Jacobinism," suppression of free intraparty discussion, a dictatorship over the proletariat, not of the proletariat, and, finally, establishment of a one-man dictatorship.

Lenin found himself in the minority in the early sessions of the Second Congress of what was then proclaimed to be the <u>Russian Social-Democratic Workers' Party</u> (RSDWP). But a walkout by a disgruntled group of Jewish Social-Democrats, the Bund, left Lenin with a slight majority. Consequently, the members of Lenin's adventitious majority were called <u>Bolsheviks</u> (majoritarians), and Martov's group were dubbed <u>Mensheviks</u> (minoritarians). The two groups fought each other ceaselessly within the same RSDWP and professed the same program until 1912, when Lenin made the split final at the <u>Prague</u> Conference of the Bolshevik Party.

Challenges of the Revolution of 1905 and World War I

The differences between Lenin and the Mensheviks became sharper in the <u>Revolution</u> of 1905 and its aftermath, when Lenin moved to a distinctly original view on two issues: class alignments in the revolution and the character of the post-revolutionary regime.

The outbreak of the revolution, in January 1905, found Lenin abroad in Switzerland, and he did not return to Russia until November. Immediately Lenin set down a novel strategy. Both wings of the RSDWP, Bolshevik and Menshevik, adhered to Plekhanov's view of the revolution in two stages: first, a bourgeois revolution; second, a proletarian revolution (see above). But the Mensheviks argued that the bourgeois revolution must be led by the bourgeoisie, with whom the proletariat must ally itself in order to make the democratic revolution. This would bring the liberal bourgeoisie to full power, whereupon the RSDWP would act as the party of opposition. Lenin defiantly rejected this kind of alliance and post-revolutionary regime. Hitherto he had spoken of the need for the proletariat to win "hegemony" in the democratic revolution. Now he flatly declared that the proletariat was the driving force of the revolution and that its only reliable ally was the peasantry. The bourgeoisie he branded as hopelessly counterrevolutionary and too cowardly to make its own revolution. Thus, unlike the Mensheviks, Lenin henceforth banked on an alliance that would establish a "revolutionary democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry."

Nor would the revolution necessarily stop at the first stage, the <u>bourgeois</u> revolution. If the Russian revolution should inspire the western European proletariat to make the Socialist revolution, for which industrial Europe was ripe, the Russian revolution might well pass over directly to the second stage, the Socialist revolution. Then, the Russian proletariat, supported by the rural proletariat and semi-proletariat at home and assisted by the triumphant industrial proletariat of the West, which had established its "dictatorship of the proletariat," could cut short the life-span of Russian capitalism.

After the defeat of the Revolution of 1905, the issue between Lenin and the Mensheviks was more clearly drawn than ever, despite efforts at reunion. But, forced again into exile from 1907 to 1917, Lenin found serious challenges to his policies not only from the Mensheviks but within his own faction as well. The combination of repression and modest reform effected by the tsarist regime led to a decline of party membership. Disillusionment and despair in the chances of successful revolution swept the dwindled party ranks, rent by controversies over tactics and philosophy. Attempts to unite the Bolshevik and Menshevik factions came to naught, all breaking on

Lenin's <u>intransigent</u> insistence that his conditions for reunification be adopted. As one Menshevik opponent described Lenin: "There is no other man who is absorbed by the revolution twenty-four hours a day, who has no other thoughts but the thought of revolution, and who even when he sleeps, dreams of nothing but revolution." Placing revolution above party unity, Lenin would accept no unity compromise if he thought it might delay, not accelerate, revolution.

Desperately fighting to maintain the cohesion of the Bolsheviks against internal differences and the Mensheviks' growing strength at home, Lenin <u>convened</u> the Bolshevik Party Conference at Prague, in 1912, which split the RSDWP forever. Lenin proclaimed that the Bolsheviks were the RSDWP and that the Mensheviks were schismatics. Thereafter, each faction maintained its separate central committee, party apparatus, and press.

When war broke out, in August 1914, Socialist parties throughout Europe rallied behind their governments despite the resolutions of prewar congresses of the <u>Second International</u> obliging them to resist or even overthrow their respective governments if they plunged their countries into an imperialist war.

After Lenin recovered from his initial disbelief in this "betrayal" of the International, he proclaimed a policy whose <u>audacity</u> stunned his own Bolshevik comrades. He denounced the pro-war Socialists as "social-chauvinists" who had betrayed the international working-class cause by support of a war that was imperialist on both sides. He pronounced the Second International as dead and appealed for the creation of a new, <u>Third International</u> composed of genuinely revolutionary Socialist parties. More immediately, revolutionary Socialists must work to "transform the imperialist war into civil war." The real enemy of the worker was not the worker in the opposite trench but the capitalist at home. Workers and soldiers should therefore turn their guns on their rulers and destroy the system that had plunged them into imperialist <u>carnage</u>.

Lenin's policy found few advocates in Russia or elsewhere in the first months of the war. Indeed, in the first flush of patriotic fervour, not a few Bolsheviks supported the war effort. Lenin and his closest comrades were left an isolated band swimming against the current.

Lenin succeeded in reaching neutral Switzerland in September 1914, there joining a small group of anti-war Bolshevik and Menshevik émigrés. The war virtually cut them off from all contact with Russia and with like-minded Socialists in other countries. Nevertheless, in 1915 and 1916, anti-war Socialists in various countries managed to hold two anti-war conferences in Zimmerwald and Kienthal, Switzerland. Lenin failed at both meetings to persuade his comrades to adopt his slogan: "transform the imperialist war into civil war!" They adopted instead the more moderate formula: "An immediate peace without annexations or indemnities and the right of the peoples to self-determination." Lenin consequently found his party a minority within the group of anti-war Socialists, who, in turn, constituted a small minority of the international Socialist movement compared with the pro-war Socialists.

Undaunted, Lenin continued to hammer home his views on the war, confident that eventually he would win decisive support. In his <u>Imperialism</u>, the <u>Highest Stage of Capitalism</u> (1917), he set out to explain, first, the real causes of the war; second, why Socialists had abandoned internationalism for patriotism and supported the war; and third, why revolution alone could bring about a just, <u>democratic peace</u>.

War erupted, he wrote, because of the <u>insatiable</u>, expansionist character of <u>imperialism</u>, itself a product of monopoly finance capitalism. At the end of the 19th century, a handful of banks had come to dominate the advanced countries, which, by 1914, had in their respective empires brought the rest of the world under their direct or indirect controls. Amassing vast quantities of "surplus" capital, the giant banks found they could garner superprofits on investments in colonies and semi-colonies, and this intensified the race for empire among the great powers. By 1914, dissatisfied with the way the world had been shared out, rival coalitions of imperialists launched the war to bring about a redivision of the world at the expense of the other coalition. The war was therefore imperialist in its origins and aims and deserved the condemnation of genuine Socialists.

<u>Socialist Party</u> and trade-union leaders had rallied to support their respective imperialist governments because they represented the "labour aristocracy," the better paid workers who received a small share of the colonial "superprofits" the imperialists proffered them. "Bribed" by the imperialists, the "labour aristocracy" took the side of their paymasters in the imperialist war and betrayed the most exploited workers at home and the super-exploited in the colonies. The imperialists, Lenin contended, driven by an annexationist <u>dynamic</u>, could not conclude a just, lasting peace. Future wars were inevitable so long as imperialism existed; imperialism was inevitable so long as capitalism existed; only the overthrow of capitalism everywhere could end the imperialist war and prevent such wars in the future. First published in Russia in 1917, *Imperialism* to this day provides the instrument that Communists everywhere employ to evaluate major trends in the non-Communist world.

Leadership in the Russian Revolution of Vladimir Lenin



Vladimir Lenin during the Russian Revolution, 1917.

By 1917 it seemed to Lenin that the war would never end and that the prospect of revolution was rapidly receding. But in the week of March 8–15, the starving, freezing,

war-weary workers and soldiers of <u>Petrograd</u> (until 1914, St. Petersburg) succeeded in deposing the Tsar. Lenin and his closest lieutenants hastened home after the German authorities agreed to permit their passage through <u>Germany</u> to neutral Sweden. Berlin hoped that the return of anti-war Socialists to <u>Russia</u> would undermine the Russian war effort.

First return to Petrograd

Lenin arrived in Petrograd on April 16, 1917, one month after the Tsar had been forced to <u>abdicate</u>. Out of the revolution was born the <u>Provisional Government</u>, formed by a group of leaders of the bourgeois liberal parties. This government's accession to power was made possible only by the assent of the Petrograd Soviet, a council of workers' deputies elected in the factories of the capital. Similar soviets of workers' deputies sprang up in all the major cities and towns throughout the <u>country</u>, as did soviets of soldiers' deputies and of peasants' deputies. Although the Petrograd Soviet had been the sole political power recognized by the revolutionary workers and soldiers in March 1917, its leaders had hastily turned full power over to the Provisional Government. The Petrograd Soviet was headed by a majority composed of Menshevik and <u>Socialist Revolutionary</u> (SR), or <u>peasant</u> party, leaders who regarded the March (February, O.S.) Revolution as bourgeois; hence, they believed that the new <u>regime</u> should be headed by leaders of the bourgeois parties.

On his return to Russia, Lenin electrified his own comrades, most of whom accepted the authority of the Provisional Government. Lenin called this government, despite its democratic pretensions, thoroughly imperialist and undeserving of support by Socialists. It was incapable of satisfying the most profound desires of the workers, soldiers, and peasants for immediate peace and division of landed estates among the peasants.

Only a <u>soviet</u> government—that is, direct rule by workers, soldiers, and peasants—could fulfill these demands. Therefore, he raised the battle cry, "All power to the Soviets!"—although the Bolsheviks still <u>constituted</u> a minority within the soviets and despite the <u>manifest</u> unwillingness of the Menshevik—SR majority to exercise such power. This introduced what Lenin called the period of "dual power." Under the leadership of "opportunist" Socialists, the soviets, the real power, had relinquished power to the Provisional Government, the <u>nominal</u> power in the land. The Bolsheviks, Lenin exhorted, must persuade the workers, peasants, and soldiers, temporarily deceived by the "opportunists," to retrieve state power for the soviets from the Provisional Government. This would <u>constitute</u> a second revolution. But, so long as the government did not suppress the revolutionary parties, this revolution could be achieved peacefully, since the Provisional Government existed only by the sufferance of the soviets.

Initially, Lenin's fellow Bolsheviks thought that he was temporarily disoriented by the complexity of the situation; moderate Socialists thought him mad. It required several weeks of sedulous persuasion by Lenin before he won the Bolshevik Party Central Committee to his view. The April Party Conference endorsed his program: the party must withhold support from the Provisional Government and win a majority in the

soviets in favour of soviet power. A soviet government, once established, should begin immediate negotiations for a general peace on all fronts. The soviets should forthwith confiscate landlords' estates without compensation, nationalize all land, and divide it among the peasants. And the government should establish tight controls over privately owned industry to the benefit of labour.

From March to September 1917, the Bolsheviks remained a minority in the soviets. By autumn, however, the Provisional Government (since July headed by the moderate Socialist Aleksandr Kerensky, who was supported by the moderate Socialist leadership of the soviets) had lost popular support. Increasing war-weariness and the breakdown of the economy overtaxed the patience of the workers, peasants, and soldiers, who demanded immediate and fundamental change. Lenin capitalized on the growing disillusionment of the people with Kerensky's ability and willingness to complete the revolution. Kerensky, in turn, claimed that only a freely elected constituent assembly would have the power to decide Russia's political future—but that must await the return of order. Meanwhile, Lenin and the party demanded peace, land, and bread—immediately, without further delay. The Bolshevik line won increasing support among the workers, soldiers, and peasants. By September they voted in a Bolshevik majority in the Petrograd Soviet and in the soviets of the major cities and towns throughout the country.

Decision to seize power

Lenin, who had gone underground in July after he had been accused as a "German agent" by Kerensky's government, now decided that the time was ripe to seize power. The party must immediately begin preparations for an armed uprising to <u>depose</u> the Provisional Government and transfer state power to the soviets, now headed by a Bolshevik majority.

Lenin's decision to establish soviet power derived from his belief that the proletarian revolution must smash the existing state machinery and introduce a "dictatorship of the proletariat"; that is, direct rule by the armed workers and peasants which would eventually "wither away" into a non-coercive, classless, stateless, Communist society. He expounded this view most trenchantly in his brochure The State and Revolution, written while he was still in hiding. The brochure, though never completed and often dismissed as Lenin's most "Utopian" work, nevertheless served as Lenin's doctrinal springboard to power.

Until 1917 all revolutionary Socialists rightly believed, Lenin wrote, that a parliamentary republic could serve a Socialist system as well as a capitalist. But the Russian Revolution had brought forth something new, the <u>soviets</u>. Created by workers, soldiers, and peasants and excluding the propertied classes, the soviets infinitely surpassed the most democratic of parliaments in <u>democracy</u>, because parliaments everywhere virtually excluded workers and peasants. The choice before Russia in early September 1917, as Lenin saw it, was either a soviet republic—a <u>dictatorship</u> of the propertyless majority—or a parliamentary republic—as he saw it, a dictatorship of the propertied minority.

Lenin therefore raised the slogan, "All power to the Soviets!", even though he had willingly conceded in the spring of 1917 that revolutionary Russia was the "freest of all the <u>belligerent</u> countries." To Lenin, however, the Provisional Government was merely a "dictatorship of the bourgeoisie" that kept Russia in the imperialist war. What is more, it had turned openly counterrevolutionary in the month of July when it accused the <u>Bolshevik</u> leaders of treason.

From late September, Lenin, a fugitive in Finland, sent a stream of articles and letters to Petrograd feverishly exhorting the Party Central Committee to organize an armed uprising without delay. The opportune moment might be lost. But for nearly a month Lenin's forceful urgings from afar were unsuccessful. As in April, Lenin again found himself in the party minority. He resorted to a desperate stratagem.

Around October 20, Lenin, in disguise and at considerable personal risk, slipped into Petrograd and attended a secret meeting of the Bolshevik Central Committee held on the evening of October 23. Not until after a heated 10-hour debate did he finally win a majority in favour of preparing an armed takeover. Now steps to enlist the support of soldiers and sailors and to train the Red Guards, the Bolshevik-led workers' militia, for an armed takeover proceeded openly under the guise of self-defense of the Petrograd Soviet. But preparations moved haltingly, because serious opposition to the fateful decision persisted in the Central Committee. Enthusiastically in accord with Lenin on the timeliness of an armed uprising, Trotsky led its preparation from his strategic position as newly elected chairman of the Petrograd Soviet. Lenin, now hiding in Petrograd and fearful of further procrastination, desperately pressed the Central Committee to fix an early date for the uprising. On the evening of November 6, he wrote a letter to the members of the Central Committee exhorting them to proceed that very evening to arrest the members of the Provisional Government. To delay would be "fatal." The Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, to convene the next evening, should be placed before a fait accompli.



Vladimir Lenin addressing the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets in Petrograd, October 26 (November 8, New Style), 1917.

On November 7 and 8, the Bolshevik-led Red Guards and revolutionary soldiers and sailors, meeting only slight resistance, deposed the Provisional Government and proclaimed that state power had passed into the hands of the Soviets. By this time

the Bolsheviks, with their allies among the Left SR's (dissidents who broke with the pro-Kerensky SR leaders), constituted an absolute majority of the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets. The <u>delegates</u> therefore voted overwhelmingly to accept full power and elected Lenin as chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, the new Soviet Government, and approved his Peace Decree and Land Decree. Overnight, Lenin had vaulted from his hideout as a fugitive to head the Revolutionary government of the largest country in the world. Since his youth he had spent his life building a party that would win such a victory, and now at the age of 47 he and his party had triumphed. "It makes one's head spin," he confessed. But power neither intoxicated nor frightened Lenin; it cleared his head. Soberly, he steered the Soviet government toward the consolidation of its power and negotiations for peace.

Saving the Revolution



Vladimir Lenin, 1918.

In both spheres, Lenin was plagued by breaks within the ranks of Bolshevik leaders. He reluctantly agreed with the right-wingers that it would be desirable to include the Menshevik and Right SR parties in a coalition government—but on Lenin's terms. They must above all accept the soviet form of government, not a parliamentary one; they refused. Only the Left SR's agreed, and several were included in the Soviet government. Likewise, when the freely elected Constituent Assembly met in January 1918, the Mensheviks and Right SR majority flatly rejected sovietism. Lenin without hesitation ordered the dispersal of the Constituent Assembly.



Vladimir Lenin reading Pravda, 1918.

The Allies refused to recognize the Soviet government; consequently it entered alone into peace negotiations with the <u>Central Powers</u> (Germany and her allies Austro-Hungary and Turkey) at the town of <u>Brest-Litovsk</u>. They <u>imposed</u> ruinous conditions that would strip away from Soviet Russia the western tier of non-Russian nations of the old <u>Russian Empire</u>. Left Communists fanatically opposed acceptance and preached a revolutionary war, even if it imperilled the Soviet government. Lenin insisted that the terms, however ruinous and humiliating, must be accepted or he would resign from the government. He sensed that peace was the deepest yearning of the people; in any case, the shattered army could not raise effective resistance to the invader. Finally, in March 1918, after a still larger part had been carved out of old Russia by the enemy, Lenin succeeded in winning the Central Committee's acceptance of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. At last Russia was at peace.

But Brest-Litovsk only intensified the determination of counterrevolutionary forces and the Allies who supported them to bring about the overthrow of the Soviet government. That determination hardened when, in 1918, Lenin's government repudiated repayments of all foreign loans obtained by the tsarist and Provisional governments and nationalized foreign properties in Russia without compensation. From 1918 to 1920 Russia was torn by a Civil War, which cost millions of lives and untold destruction. One of the earliest victims was Lenin himself. In August 1918 an assassin fired two bullets into Lenin as he left a factory in which he had just delivered a speech. Because of his robust constitution, he recovered rapidly.

The Soviet government faced tremendous odds. The anti-Soviet forces, or Whites, headed mainly by former tsarist generals and admirals, fought desperately to overthrow the Red regime. Moreover, the Whites were lavishly supplied by the Allies with materiel, money, and support troops that secured White bases. Yet, the Whites failed.

It was largely because of Lenin's inspired leadership that the Soviet government managed to survive against such military odds. He caused the formation and guided the strategy of the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army, commanded by Trotsky. Although the economy had collapsed, he managed to mobilize sufficient resources to sustain the Red Army and the industrial workers. But above all it was his political leadership that saved the day for the Soviets. By proclaiming the right of the peoples

to self-determination, including the right to secession, he won the active sympathy, or at least the <u>benevolent</u> neutrality, of the non-Russian nationalities within Russia, because the Whites did not recognize that right. Indeed, his perceptive, skillful policy on the national question enabled Soviet Russia to avoid total disintegration and to remain a huge multinational state. By making the industrial workers the new privileged class, favoured in the distribution of rations, housing, and political power, he retained the loyalty of the <u>proletariat</u>. His championing of the peasants' demand that they take all the land from the gentry, church, and <u>crown</u> without compensation won over the peasants, without whose support the government could not survive.

Because of the breakdown of the economy, however, Lenin adopted a policy toward the peasant that threatened to destroy the Soviet government. Lacking funds or goods to exchange against grain needed to feed the Red Army and the towns, Lenin instituted a system of requisitioning grain surpluses without compensation. Many peasants resisted—at least until they experienced White "liberation." On the territories that the Whites won, they restored landed property to the previous owners and savagely punished the peasants who had dared seize the land. Despite the peasants' detestation of the Soviet's grain requisitioning, the peasants, when forced to choose between Reds and Whites, chose the Reds.

After the defeat of the Whites, the peasants no longer had to make that choice. They now totally refused to surrender their grain to the government. Threatened by mass peasant rebellion, Lenin called a retreat. In March 1921 the government introduced the New Economic Policy, which ended the system of grain requisitioning and permitted the peasant to sell his harvest on an open market. This constituted a partial retreat to capitalism.

From the moment Lenin came to power, his <u>abiding</u> aims in <u>international</u> <u>relations</u> were twofold: to prevent the formation of an imperialist united front against Soviet Russia; but, even more important, to stimulate proletarian revolutions abroad.

In his first aim he largely succeeded. In 1924, shortly after his death, Soviet Russia had won <u>de jure</u> recognition of all the major world powers except the <u>United States</u>. But his greater hope of the formation of a world republic of soviets failed to materialize, and Soviet Russia was left isolated in hostile capitalist encirclement.

Formation of the Third International

To break this encirclement, he had called on revolutionaries to form Communist parties that would emulate the example of the <u>Bolshevik Revolution</u> in all countries. Dramatizing his break with the reformist <u>Second International</u>, in 1918 he had changed the name of the <u>RSDWP</u> to the <u>Russian Communist Party</u> (Bolsheviks), and in March 1919 he founded the Communist, or <u>Third, International</u>. This International accepted the affiliation only of parties that accepted its decisions as binding, imposed iron <u>discipline</u>, and made a clean break with the Second International. In sum, Lenin now held up the Russian Communist Party, the only party that had made a successful revolution, as the model for Communist parties in all countries. One result of this policy

was to engender a split in the world labour movement between the adherents of the two internationals.

The <u>Communist International</u> scored its greatest success in the colonial world. By championing the rights of the peoples in the colonies and semi-colonies to self-determination and independence, the International won considerable sympathy for <u>Communism</u>. Lenin's policy in this question still reverberates through the world today. And it offers another example of Lenin's unique ability to find allies where revolutionaries had not found them before. By taking the side of the national liberation movements, Lenin could claim that the overwhelming majority of the world's population, then living under imperialist rule, as well as the European <u>proletariat</u>, were the natural allies of the Bolshevik Revolution.

Thus Lenin's revolutionary genius was not confined to his ability to divide his enemies; more important was his skill in finding allies and friends for the exiguous proletariat of Russia. First, he won the Russian peasants to the side of the proletariat. Second, while he did not win the workers to make successful Communist revolutions in the West, they did compel their governments to curtail armed intervention against the Bolshevik Revolution. Third, while the Asian revolutions barely stirred in his lifetime, they did strengthen the Soviet Communists in the belief that they were not alone in a hostile world.

By 1921 Lenin's government had crushed all opposition parties on the grounds that they had opposed or failed to support sufficiently the Soviet cause in the Civil War. Now that peace had come, Lenin believed that their opposition was more dangerous than ever, since the peasantry and even a large section of the working class had become disaffected with the Soviet regime. To repress opponents of Bolshevism, Lenin demanded the harshest measures, including "show" trials and frequent resort to the death penalty. Moreover, he insisted on even tighter control over dissent within the party. Lenin's insistence on merciless destruction of the opposition to the Bolshevik dictatorship subsequently led many observers to conclude that Lenin, though personally opposed to one-man rule, nevertheless unwittingly cleared the way for the rise of Joseph Stalin's dictatorship.

By 1922 Lenin had become keenly aware that degeneration of the Soviet system and party was the greatest danger to the cause of Socialism in Russia. He found the party and Soviet state apparatus hopelessly entangled in red tape and incompetence. Even the agency headed by Stalin that was responsible for streamlining administration was, in fact, less efficient than the rest of the government. The Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies had been drained of all power, which had flowed to the centre. Most disturbing the Great Russian chauvinism that was Bolsheviks manifested toward the non-Russian nationalities in the reorganization of the state in which Stalin was playing a key role. Moreover, in April 1922 Stalin won appointment as general secretary of the party, in which post he was rapidly concentrating immense power in his hands. Soviet Russia in Lenin's last years could not have been more remote from the picture of Socialism he had portrayed in *State* and Revolution. Lenin strained every nerve to reverse these trends, which he regarded as antithetical to Socialism, and to replace Stalin.

Illness and death



Vladimir Lenin resting in a sanatorium.

In the spring of 1922, however, Lenin fell seriously ill. In April his doctors extracted from his neck one of the bullets he had received from the assassin's gun in August 1918. He recovered rapidly from the operation, but a month later he fell ill, partially paralyzed and unable to speak. In June he made a partial recovery and threw himself into the formation of the <u>Union of Soviet Socialist Republics</u>, the federal system of reorganization he favoured against Stalin's unitary scheme. However, in December he was again incapacitated by semi paralysis. Although no longer the active leader of the state and party, he did muster the strength to dictate several prescient articles and what is called his political "Testament," dictated to his secretary between Dec. 23, 1922, and Jan. 4, 1923, in which he expressed a great fear for the stability of the party under the leadership of <u>disparate</u>, forceful personalities such as Stalin and <u>Trotsky</u>. On March 10, 1923, another stroke deprived him of speech. His political activity came to an end. He suffered yet another stroke on the morning of Jan. 21, 1924, and died that evening in the village of Gorki (now known as Gorki Leninskiye).

The last year of Lenin's political life, when he fought to <u>eradicate</u> abuses of his Socialist ideals and the corruption of power, may well have been his greatest. Whether the history of the Soviet Union would have been fundamentally different had he survived beyond his 54th birthday, no one can say with certainty.

October Revolution

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/October_Revolution

October Revolution

Part of the Russian Revolution and the revolutions of 1917– 1923



The Winter Palace of Petrograd, one day after the insurrection, 8 November

Date Location 7 November 1917 [O.S. 25 October]

Petrograd, Russian Republic

Location Result

- Bolshevik victory
 - End of <u>dual power</u>
 - Dissolution of the <u>Russian</u> <u>Provisional Government</u>
 - The <u>Second Congress of</u>
 <u>Soviets</u> proclaims itself as the
 supreme governing body of the
 country
 - <u>Kerensky–Krasnov uprising</u> fails to retake the capital
 - 1917 Russian Constituent
 Assembly election held under
 Bolshevik pressure
 - Beginning of the <u>Russian Civil</u>
 War

The October Revolution, also known as the Great October Socialist Revolution (in Soviet historiography), October coup, Bolshevik coup, [5] or Bolshevik revolution, was a revolution in Russia led by Vladimir Lenin's Bolsheviks as part of the broader Russian Revolution of 1917–1923. It was the second revolutionary change of government in Russia in 1917. It took place through an insurrection in Petrograd (now Saint Petersburg) on 7 November 1917 [O.S. 25 October]. It was the precipitating event of the Russian Civil War. The initial stage of the October Revolution, which involved the assault on Petrograd, occurred largely without any casualties.

The October Revolution followed and capitalized on the <u>February Revolution</u> earlier that year, which had led to the <u>abdication of Nicholas II</u> and the creation of the <u>Russian Provisional Government</u>. The provisional government, led by <u>Alexander Kerensky</u>, had taken power after <u>Grand Duke Michael</u>, the younger brother of Nicholas II, declined to take power. During this time, urban workers began to organize into councils (<u>soviets</u>) wherein revolutionaries criticized the provisional government and its actions. The provisional government remained unpopular, especially because it was continuing to fight in <u>World War I</u>, and had ruled with an iron fist throughout mid-1917 (including killing hundreds of protesters in the <u>July Days</u>). It declared the <u>Russian Republic</u> on 1 September [N.S. 14 September] 1917.

Events came to a head in late 1917 as the <u>Directorate</u>, led by the left-wing <u>Party of Socialist-Revolutionaries</u> (SRs), controlled the government. The <u>far-left</u> Bolsheviks were deeply unhappy with the government, and began spreading calls for a military uprising. On 10 October 1917 [N.S. 23 October], the <u>Petrograd Soviet</u>, led by <u>Leon Trotsky</u>, voted to back a military uprising. On 24 October [N.S. 6 November], the government shut down numerous newspapers and closed the city of Petrograd in an attempt to forestall the revolution; minor armed skirmishes broke out. The next day, a full-scale uprising erupted as a fleet of Bolshevik sailors entered the harbor and tens of thousands of soldiers rose up in support of the Bolsheviks. Bolshevik <u>Red Guard</u> forces under the <u>Military-Revolutionary Committee</u> began the occupation of government buildings. In the early morning of 26 October [N.S. 8 November], the <u>Winter Palace</u> (the seat of the Provisional government located in Petrograd, then capital of Russia) was captured.

As the revolution was not universally recognized, the country descended into the Russian Civil War, which would last until late 1922 and ultimately lead to the creation of the Soviet Union. The historiography of the event has varied. The victorious Soviet Union viewed it as a validation of its ideology and the triumph of the working class over capitalism. On the other hand, the Western Allies, for various reasons, later intervened against the Bolsheviks in the civil war. The event inspired many cultural works and ignited communist movements globally. October Revolution Day was a public holiday in the Soviet Union, marking its key role in the state's founding, and many communist parties around the world celebrate it.

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Russian Revolution

https://www.history.com/topics/european-history/russian-revolution

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was one of the most explosive political events of the 20th century. The violent revolution marked the end of the Romanov dynasty and centuries of Russian Imperial rule. Economic hardship, food shortages and government corruption all contributed

to disillusionment with Czar Nicholas II. During the Russian Revolution, the Bolsheviks, led by leftist revolutionary Vladimir Lenin, seized power and destroyed the tradition of czarist rule. The Bolsheviks would later become the Communist Party of the Soviet Union

When Was the Russian Revolution?

In 1917, two revolutions swept through Russia, ending centuries of imperial rule and setting into motion political and social changes that would lead to the eventual formation of the <u>Soviet Union</u>.

However, while the two revolutionary events took place within a few short months of 1917, social unrest in Russia had been brewing for many years prior to the events of that year.

In the early 1900s, Russia was one of the most impoverished countries in Europe with an enormous peasantry and a growing minority of poor industrial workers. Much of Western Europe viewed Russia as an undeveloped, backwards society.

The Russian Empire practiced serfdom—a form of feudalism in which landless peasants were forced to serve the land-owning nobility—well into the nineteenth century. In contrast, the practice had disappeared in most of Western Europe by the end of the <u>Middle Ages</u>.

In 1861, the Russian Empire finally abolished serfdom. The emancipation of serfs would influence the events leading up to the Russian Revolution by giving peasants more freedom to organize.

What Caused the Russian Revolution?

The <u>Industrial Revolution</u> gained a foothold in Russia much later than in Western Europe and the United States. When it finally did, around the turn of the 20th century, it brought with it immense social and political changes.

Between 1890 and 1910, for example, the population of major Russian cities such as St. Petersburg and Moscow nearly doubled, resulting in overcrowding and destitute living conditions for a new class of Russian industrial workers.

A population boom at the end of the 19th century, a harsh growing season due to Russia's northern climate, and a series of costly wars—starting with the <u>Crimean War</u>—created frequent food shortages across the vast empire. Moreover, a famine in 1891-1892 is estimated to have killed up to 400,000 Russians.

The devastating <u>Russo-Japanese War</u> of 1904-1905 further weakened Russia and the position of ruler <u>Czar Nicholas II</u>. Russia suffered heavy losses of soldiers, ships, money and international prestige in the war, which it ultimately lost.

Many educated Russians, looking at social progress and scientific advancement in Western Europe and North America, saw how growth in Russia was being hampered by the monarchical rule of the czars and the czar's supporters in the aristocratic class.

Russian Revolution of 1905

Soon, large protests by Russian workers against the monarchy led to the <u>Bloody Sunday massacre of 1905</u>. Hundreds of unarmed protesters were killed or wounded by the czar's troops.

The Bloody Sunday massacre sparked the Russian Revolution of 1905, during which angry workers responded with a series of crippling strikes throughout the country. Farm laborers and soldiers joined the cause, leading to the creation of worker-dominated councils called "soviets."

In one famous incident, the crew of the <u>battleship Potemkin</u> staged a successful mutiny against their overbearing officers. Historians would later refer to the 1905 Russian Revolution as 'the Great Dress Rehearsal," as it set the stage for the upheavals to come.

Nicholas II and World War I

After the bloodshed of 1905 and Russia's humiliating loss in the Russo-Japanese War, Nicholas II promised greater freedom of speech and the formation of a representative assembly, or Duma, to work toward reform.

Russia entered into <u>World War I</u> in August 1914 in support of the Serbs and their French and British allies. Their involvement in the war would soon prove disastrous for the Russian Empire.

Militarily, imperial Russia was no match for industrialized Germany, and Russian casualties were greater than those sustained by any nation in any previous war. Food and fuel shortages plagued Russia as inflation mounted. The already weak economy was hopelessly disrupted by the costly war effort.

Czar Nicholas left the Russian capital of Petrograd (St. Petersburg) in 1915 to take command of the Russian Army front. (The Russians had renamed the imperial city in 1914, because "St. Petersburg" sounded too German.)





Rasputin and the Czarina

In her husband's absence, Czarina Alexandra—an unpopular woman of German ancestry—began firing elected officials. During this time, her controversial advisor, <u>Grigory Rasputin</u>, increased his influence over Russian politics and the royal <u>Romanov family</u>.

Russian nobles eager to end Rasputin's influence murdered him on December 30, 1916. By then, most Russians had lost faith in the failed leadership of the czar. Government corruption was rampant, the Russian economy remained backward and Nicholas repeatedly dissolved the Duma, the toothless Russian parliament established after the 1905 revolution, when it opposed his will.

Moderates soon joined Russian radical elements in calling for an overthrow of the hapless czar.

February Revolution

The <u>February Revolution</u> (known as such because of Russia's use of the Julian calendar until February 1918) began on March 8, 1917 (February 23 on the Julian calendar).

Demonstrators clamouring for bread took to the streets of Petrograd. Supported by huge crowds of striking industrial workers, the protesters clashed with police but refused to leave the streets.

On March 11, the troops of the Petrograd army garrison were called out to quell the uprising. In some encounters, the regiments opened fire, killing demonstrators, but the protesters kept to the streets and the troops began to waver.

The Duma formed a provisional government on March 12. A few days later, <u>Czar Nicholas abdicated</u> the throne, ending centuries of Russian Romanov rule.

Alexander Kerensky

The leaders of the provisional government, including young Russian lawyer Alexander Kerensky, established a liberal program of rights such as freedom of speech, equality before the law, and the right of unions to organize and strike. They opposed violent social revolution.

As minister of war, Kerensky continued the Russian war effort, even though Russian involvement in World War I was enormously unpopular. This further exacerbated Russia's food supply problems. Unrest continued to grow as peasants looted farms and food riots erupted in the cities.

Bolshevik Revolution

On November 6 and 7, 1917 (or October 24 and 25 on the Julian calendar, which is why the event is often referred to as the <u>October Revolution</u>), leftist revolutionaries led by Bolshevik Party leader <u>Vladimir Lenin</u> launched a nearly bloodless coup d'état against the Duma's provisional government.

The provisional government had been assembled by a group of leaders from Russia's bourgeois capitalist class. Lenin instead called for a Soviet government that would be ruled directly by councils of soldiers, peasants and workers.

The Bolsheviks and their allies occupied government buildings and other strategic locations in Petrograd, and soon formed a new government with Lenin as its head. Lenin became the dictator of the world's first communist state.

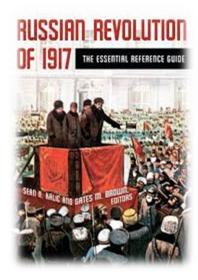
Russian Civil War

Civil War broke out in Russia in late 1917 after the Bolshevik Revolution. The warring factions included the Red and White Armies.

The Red Army fought for the Lenin's Bolshevik government. The White Army represented a large group of loosely allied forces, including monarchists, capitalists and supporters of democratic socialism.

On July 16, 1918, the <u>Romanovs were executed</u> by the Bolsheviks. The Russian Civil War ended in 1923 with Lenin's Red Army claiming victory and establishing the Soviet Union.

After many years of violence and political unrest, the Russian Revolution paved the way for the rise of <u>communism</u> as an influential political belief system around the world. It set the stage for the rise of the Soviet Union as a world power that would go head-to-head with the United States during the <u>Cold War</u>.







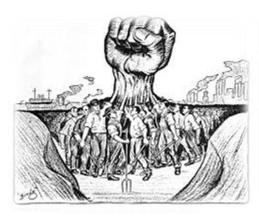


















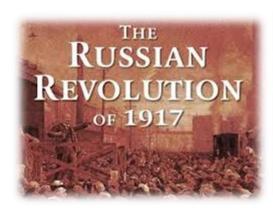




















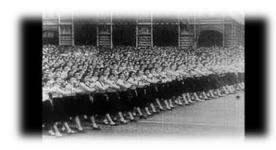
















[A] Russian Revolution Timeline

https://www.britannica.com/list/russian-revolution-timeline

Note: The dates in this timeline follow the <u>Gregorian calendar</u>, currently in use in Russia and around the world. At the time the revolution happened, Russia used the <u>Julian calendar</u>. Sources using Julian dates differ from the dating presented here.

March 8, 1917

Russian peasants, striking workers, and soldiers, equally exhausted from the privations caused by World War I, take to the streets in Petrograd (St. Petersburg) to protest their living conditions. Over the following week the protests grow, and more than a thousand people are killed in clashes with the police and government troops.

March 15

After the majority of the Petrograd garrison of soldiers joins the revolt, Tsar <u>Nicholas II</u> is forced to abdicate. His brother Grand Duke Michael then refuses the throne, which brings an end to the <u>Romanov dynasty</u>. A provisional government is quickly set up to serve in the Romanovs' stead.

April 16

Communist leader <u>Vladimir Lenin</u> returns to Petrograd after a 10-year exile from Russia and begins to rebuild his power as leader of the Bolsheviks.

July 16–20

Workers and soldiers in Petrograd stage a series of armed demonstrations that become known as the <u>July Days</u>. As a result of these actions, <u>Aleksandr Kerensky</u> becomes the head of a new provisional government. Fearing a possible coup by the Bolsheviks, he accuses Lenin of being a "German agent," which results in Lenin's fleeing the country for Finland. The public turns against the Bolsheviks, and numerous members of the group are jailed.

September 9

<u>Lavr Georgiyevich Kornilov</u>, the commander in chief of the Russian army, orders troops to march on Petrograd to forestall what he perceives as a Bolshevik

threat. The move, widely seen as an attempted coup, is put down by Kerensky and his loyal troops. Kornilov's failed intervention serves to increase the power and popularity of the Bolsheviks as more Russians defensively flock to Kornilov's main target—a shift that is aided by hopes that the Bolsheviks are the group to turn around the worsening Russian economy.

October 20

A disguised Lenin returns to Petrograd. He stays hidden from Russian authorities over the following weeks as he works with the Bolsheviks and affiliated groups to plot a takeover of the government.

November 7–8

The October Revolution (named after the dates [October 24–25] of these days on the Julian calendar) takes place, during which the Bolsheviks and revolutionary soldiers depose the provisional government and declare that state power has been passed to the <u>soviets</u>. Kerensky flees Petrograd, the soviets declare the immediate withdrawal of Russia from World War I, and 74 years of Soviet government begins.

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[B] Russian Revolution Timeline 1917

https://alphahistory.com/russianrevolution/russian-revolution-timeline-1917/

This Russian Revolution timeline lists significant events and developments in Russia in 1917. This timeline has been written and compiled by Alpha History authors. Note: Russia used the Julian or Old Style calendar until January 24th 1918, when this system was replaced by the Gregorian or New Style calendar. Dates in this calendar are Julian or Old Style before January 24th 1918 and Gregorian or New Style thereafter. To convert Old Style dates to New Style dates, add 13 days (for example, October 26th 1917 O.S. becomes November 8th N.S.)

<u>1917</u>

January 9th: More than 140,000 Russian workers strike in commemoration of the 12th anniversary of Bloody Sunday.

The February Revolution

February 14th: More than 100,000 workers are still on strike; the Duma attacks the government failing to respond to food shortages. **February 19**th: The February Revolution begins. The tsarist government announces food rationing, leading to panic buying in cities, where food availability is already critically

February 23rd: Marchers gathered for International Women's Day are joined by striking workers and socialist agitators.

February 25th: Strikes continue to expand, with more than 200,000 workers now involved, leading to occasional violent clashes between protesters and police. **February 26**th: The tsar orders troops to fire on unruly protesters, dozens are killed. He also orders the Duma to be permanently dissolved, however, this is ignored. **February 27**th: Two garrisons of soldiers in Petrograd shoot their officers rather than obey orders to fire on civilians. Mensheviks and striking workers reform the Petrograd Soviet.

February 28th: The tsar attempts to return to Petrograd but is delayed by railway problems in Pskov. The Duma and the Petrograd Soviet both meet to plan a course of action.

March 1st: The leaders of France and Britain formally recognise the Provisional Government as the official government of Russia. **March 2**nd: The tsar met by the Duma's Provisional Government committee, who demand his abdication. After consulting with his generals, Nicholas abdicates in favour of his brother Michael.

March 3rd: Nicholas' brother refuses the throne unless it is offered to him by a constituent assembly elected by the people. This ends more than 300 years of Romanov rule.

March 3rd: The Provisional Government issues a set of liberal principles by which it intends to govern. This includes improvements to civil rights and freedoms, amnesties for political prisoners and the organisation of elections for a Constituent Assembly. **March 9**th: Nicholas II and his family are detained under house arrest. **March 12**th: The Provisional Government issues a decree abolishing the death penalty.

April 3rd: Lenin returns to Russia with the assistance of the German government. On arrival, he delivers a speech at Finland Station, which forms the basis of the April Theses.

April 18th: Foreign minister Pavel Milyukov informs the Allies by telegram that Russia intends to remain in the war until its completion. This telegram is leaked to the press, sparking a large public demonstration in Petrograd. **April 24**th: Milyukov resigns. Six Menshevik and SR delegates join the Provisional Government, while Alexander Kerensky replaces Guchkov as war minister.

June 3rd-24th: The First All-Russia Congress of Workers' and Soldiers' Soviets opens; it is dominated by Mensheviks and SR delegates. **June 18th**: On Kerensky's orders, Russian forces begin a massive military offensive against the Austro-Hungarians in Galicia. The offensive fails, leading to 400,000 Russian casualties.

[C] Russian Revolution Timeline

https://www.thoughtco.com/russian-revolution-timeline-1779473

The <u>Russian Revolution of 1917</u> deposed the czar and installed the Bolsheviks in power. After winning the <u>civil war</u> in Russia, the Bolsheviks established the Soviet Union in 1922.

Timelines of the <u>Russian Revolution</u> are often confusing because up until February 1918 Russia used a <u>different calendar</u> than the rest of the Western world. The 19th century, the Julian calendar, used by Russia, was 12 days behind the Gregorian calendar (used by most of the Western world) until March 1, 1900, when it became 13 days behind.

In this timeline, the dates are in the Julian "Old Style," with the Gregorian "New Style" ("NS") date in parentheses, until the change in 1918. Thereafter, all dates are in the Gregorian.

1887

May 8 (May 20 NS): Lenin's brother, Alexander Ulyanov, is hanged for plotting to kill Czar Alexander III.

1894

October 20 (November 1 NS): Czar Alexander III dies after a sudden illness and his son, <u>Nicholas II</u>, becomes the ruler of Russia.

November 14 (November 26 NS): Czar Nicholas II marries Alexandra Fedorovna.

1895

December 8 (December 20 NS): Lenin is arrested, kept in solitary confinement for 13 months, and then exiled to Siberia for three years.

1896

May 14 (May 26 NS): Nicholas II crowned czar of Russia.

1903

July 17—August 10 (July 30—August 23 NS): The Russian Social-Democratic Labor Party (RSDLP) meeting in which the Party splits into two factions: Mensheviks ("minority") and Bolsheviks ("majority").

1904

July 30 (August 12 NS): After having four girls, Czarina Alexandra gives birth to a son, Alexei.

1905

January 9 (January 22 NS): Bloody Sunday in St. Petersburg—a protest which is ended by imperial forces firing into the crowds—begins the 1905 Russian Revolution.

October 17 (October 30 NS): The October Manifesto, issued by <u>Czar Nicholas II</u>, brings an end to the 1905 Russian Revolution by promising <u>civil liberties</u> and an elected parliament (Duma).

1906

April 23 (May 6 NS): -A constitution (the Fundamental Laws of 1906) is created, reflecting the promises made in the October Manifesto.

1914

July 15 (July 28 NS): World War I begins.

1915

September 5 (September 18 NS): Czar Nicholas II assumes supreme command of the Russian Army.

1916

December 17 (December 30): The mystic and confidant of the Czarina <u>Rasputin</u> is murdered.

1917

February 23–27 (March 8–12 NS): The February Revolution begins with strikes, demonstrations, and mutinies in Petrograd (also called the March Revolution if following the Gregorian calendar).

March 2 (March 15 NS): Czar Nicholas II abdicates and includes his son. The following day, Nicholas' brother, Mikhail announced his refusal to accept the throne. Provisional Government formed.

April 3 (April 16 NS): <u>Lenin returns</u> from exile and arrives in Petrograd via a sealed train.

July 3–7 (July 16–20 NS): The July Days begin in Petrograd with spontaneous protests against the Provisional Government; after the Bolsheviks unsuccessfully try to direct these protests into a coup, Lenin is forced into hiding.

July 11 (July 24 NS): Alexander Kerensky becomes Prime Minister of the Provisional Government.

August 22–27 (September 4–9 NS): The Kornilov Affair, a coup engineered by General Lavr Kornilov, commander of the Russian Army, fails.

October 25 (November 7 NS): The October Revolution begins when the Bolsheviks take over Petrograd (also called the November Revolution if following the Gregorian calendar).

October 26 (November 8 NS): The Winter Palace, the last holdout of the Provisional Government, is taken by the Bolsheviks; the Council of People's Commissars (abbreviated as Sovnarkom), led by Lenin, is now in control of Russia.

1918

February 1/14: The new <u>Bolshevik</u> government converts Russia from the Julian to the Gregorian calendar turning February 1 into February 14.

March 3: The <u>Treaty of Brest-Litovsk</u>, between Germany and Russia, is signed and takes Russia out of World War I.

March 8: The Bolshevik Party changes its name to the Communist Party.

March 11: The capital of Russia is moved from St. Petersburg to Moscow.

June: The Russian civil war begins.

July 17: Czar Nicholas II and his family are executed.

August 30: An assassination attempt leaves Lenin seriously wounded.

1920

November: Russian civil war ends.

1922

April 3: Stalin is appointed General Secretary.

May 26: Lenin suffers his first stroke.

December 15: Lenin suffers his second stroke and retires from politics.

December 30: The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) established.

1924

January 21: Lenin dies; Stalin will become his successor.

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https://www.marxists.org/archive/lenin/quotes.htm

Lenin Quotes

The only authentic, sourced list of quotes by Lenin on the Internet.

44))

The progressive historical role of capitalism may be summed up in two brief propositions: increase in the productive forces of social labour, and the socialisation of that labour. But both these facts manifest themselves in extremely diverse processes in different branches of the national economy.

Lenin, <u>The Development of Capitalism in Russia</u>, The "The Mission of Capitalism" (1899)

Perhaps the profoundest cause of disagreement with the Narodniks is the difference in our fundamental views on social and economic processes. When studying the latter, the Narodnik usually draws conclusions that point to some moral; he does not regard the diverse groups of persons taking part in production as creators of various forms of life; he does not set out to present the sum-total of social and economic relationships as the result of the mutual relations between these groups, which have different interests and different historical

Lenin, <u>The Development of Capitalism in Russia</u>, The "The Mission of Capitalism" (1899)

If the writer of these lines has succeeded in providing some material for clarifying these problems, he may regard his labours as not having been fruitless.

Lenin, <u>The Development of Capitalism in Russia</u>, The "The Mission of Capitalism" (1899)

In the history of modern socialism this is a phenomenon, that the strife of the various trends within the socialist movement has from national become international.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Dogmatism And 'Freedom of Criticism" (1901)

If democracy, in essence, means the abolition of class domination, then why should not a socialist minister charm the whole bourgeois world by orations on class collaboration?

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Dogmatism And 'Freedom of Criticism" (1901)

Those who are really convinced that they have made progress in science would not demand freedom for the new views to continue side by side with the old, but the substitution of the new views for the old.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Dogmatism And 'Freedom of Criticism" (1901)

We are marching in a compact group along a precipitous and difficult path, firmly holding each other by the hand. We are surrounded on all sides by enemies, and we have to advance almost constantly under their fire. We have combined, by a freely adopted decision, for the purpose of fighting the enemy, and not of retreating into the neighbouring marsh, the inhabitants of which, from the very outset, have reproached us with having separated ourselves into an exclusive group and with having chosen the path of struggle instead of the path of conciliation. And now some among us begin to cry out: Let us go into the marsh! And when we begin to shame them, they retort: What backward people you are! Are you not ashamed to deny us the liberty to invite you to take a better road! Oh, yes, gentlemen! You are free not only to invite us, but to go yourselves wherever you will, even into the marsh. In fact, we think that the marsh is your proper place, and we are prepared to render you every assistance to get there. Only let go of our hands, don't clutch at us and don't besmirch the grand word freedom, for we too are "free" to go where we please, free to fight not only against the marsh, but also against those who turnina towards the are marsh!

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Dogmatism And 'Freedom of Criticism" (1901)

In a country ruled by an autocracy, with a completely enslaved press, in a period of desperate political reaction in which even the tiniest outgrowth of political discontent and protest is persecuted, the theory of revolutionary Marxism suddenly forced its way into the *censored* literature before the government realised what had happened and the unwieldy army of censors and gendarmes discovered the new enemy and flung itself upon him.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Criticism in Russia" (1901)

This fear of criticism displayed by the advocates of freedom of criticism cannot be attributed solely to craftiness. No, the majority of the Economists look with sincere resentment upon all theoretical controversies, factional disagreements, broad political questions, plans for organising revolutionaries, etc.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Criticism in Russia" (1901)

History has now confronted us with an immediate task which is the most revolutionary of all the immediate tasks confronting the proletariat of any country. The fulfilment of this task, the destruction of the most powerful bulwark, not only of European, but (it may now be said) of Asiatic reaction, would make the Russian proletariat the vanguard of the international revolutionary proletariat. And we have the right to count upon acquiring this honourable title, already earned by our predecessors, the revolutionaries of the seventies, if we succeed in inspiring our movement, which is a thousand times broader and deeper, with the same devoted determination and vigour.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Criticism in Russia" (1901)

Since there can be no talk of an independent ideology formulated by the working masses themselves in the process of their movement, the only choice is — either bourgeois or socialist ideology. There is no middle course (for mankind has not created a "third" ideology).

(This does not mean, of course, that the workers have no part in creating such an ideology. They take part, however, not as workers, but as socialist theoreticians, as Proudhons and Weitlings, to the extent that they are able to acquire the knowledge of their age and develop that knowledge.)

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Spontaneity of the Masses and the Consciousness of the Social-Democrats" (1901)

To belittle the socialist ideology *in any way, to turn aside from* it in the slightest degree means to strengthen bourgeois ideology. There is much talk of spontaneity. the *spontaneous* development of the working-class movement leads to its subordination to bourgeois ideology; for the spontaneous working-class movement is trade-unionism, and trade unionism means the ideological enslavement of the workers by the bourgeoisie. Hence, our task, the task of Social-Democracy, is to combat spontaneity, to divert the workingclass movement from this spontaneous, trade-unionist striving to come under the wing of the bourgeoisie, and to bring it under the wing of revolutionary Social Democracy.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Spontaneity of the Masses and the Consciousness of the Social-Democrats" (1901)

Revolutionary Social-Democracy has always included the struggle for reforms as part of its activities. But it utilises "economic" agitation for the purpose of presenting to the government, not only demands for all sorts of measures, but also (and primarily) the demand that it cease to be an autocratic government.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Trade-Unionist Politics And Social-Democratic Politics" (1901)

A basic condition for the necessary expansion of political agitation is the organisation of comprehensive political exposure.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Political Exposures And 'Training In Revolutionary Activity" (1901)

It is particularly necessary to arouse in all who participate in practical work, or are preparing to take up that work, discontent with the *amateurism* prevailing among us and an unshakable determination to rid ourselves of it.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Primitiveness of the

Economists and the Organization of the Revolutionaries" (1901)

This struggle must be organised, according to "all the rules of the art", by people who are professionally engaged in revolutionary activity. The fact that the masses are spontaneously being drawn into the movement does not make the organisation of this struggle *less necessary*. On the contrary, it makes it *more necessary*.

Lenin, <u>The Primitiveness of the Economists and the Organization of the Revolutionaries</u> (1901)

This struggle must be organised, according to "all the rules of the art", by people who are professionally engaged in revolutionary activity.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Primitiveness of the Economists and the Organization of the Revolutionaries" (1901)

Attention, must be devoted *principally to raising* the workers to the level of revolutionaries; it is not at all our task *to descend* to the level of the "working masses."

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Primitiveness of the Economists and the Organization of the Revolutionaries" (1901)

Every question "runs in a vicious circle" because political life as a whole is an endless chain consisting of an infinite number of links. The whole art of politics lies in finding and taking as firm a grip as we can of the link that is least likely to be struck from our hands, the one that is most important at the given moment, the one that most of all guarantees its possessor the possession of the whole chain.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Plan For an All-Russia Political Newspaper" (1901)

A newspaper is not only a collective propagandist and a collective agitator, it is also a collective organiser.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "The Plan For an All-Russia Political Newspaper" (1901)

If the Congress was a struggle between the Iskra-ist and the anti-Iskra-ist elements, were there no intermediate, unstable elements who vacillated between the two? Anyone at all familiar with our Party and with the picture generally presented by congresses of every kind will be inclined a priori to answer the question in the affirmative.

Lenin, One Step Forward, Two Steps Back, (1904)

But every little difference may become a big one if it is insisted on.

Lenin, One Step Forward, Two Steps Back, "Paragraph One of the Rules" (1904)

Are we to build the Party on the basis of that already formed and welded core of *Social-Democrats* which brought about the Party Congress, for instance, and which should enlarge and multiply Party organisations of all kinds; or are we to content ourselves with the soothing *phrase* that all who help *are* Party members?

Lenin, One Step Forward, Two Steps Back, "Paragraph One of the Rules" (1904)

In the beginning we had to teach the workers the ABC, both in the literal and in the figurative senses. Now the standard of political literacy has risen so gigantically that we can and should concentrate all our efforts on the more direct Social-Democratic objectives aimed at giving an organised direction to the revolutionary stream.

Lenin, New Tasks and New Forces (1905)

Social-Democracy, however, wants, on the contrary, to develop the class struggle of the proletariat to the point where the latter will take the leading part in the popular Russian revolution, i.e., will lead this revolution to a the democratic-dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry.

Lenin, Two Tactics of Social Democracy (1905)

The basic mistake made by those who now criticise *What Is To Be Done*? (1901) is to treat the pamphlet apart from its connection with the concrete historical situation of a definite, and now long past, period in the development of our Party.

Lenin, Preface to the Collection "Twelve Years" (1905)

That today, when the wave has ebbed, there remain and will remain only real Marxists, does not frighten us but rejoices us.

Lenin, Two Letters (1908)

When the masses are digesting a new and exceptionally rich experience of direct revolutionary struggle, the theoretical struggle for a revolutionary outlook, i.e., for revolutionary Marxism, becomes the watchword of the day.

Lenin, Two Letters (1908)

- 1) Things exist independently of our consciousness, independently of our perceptions, outside of us, for it is beyond doubt that alizarin existed in coal tar yesterday and it is equally beyond doubt that yesterday we knew nothing of the existence of this alizarin and received no sensations from it. 2) There is definitely no difference in principle between the phenomenon and the thing-in-itself, and there can be no such difference. The only difference is between what is known and what is not yet known. And philosophical inventions of specific boundaries between the one and the other, inventions to the effect that the thing-in-itself is "beyond" phenomena (Kant), or that we can and must fence ourselves off by some philosophical partition from the problem of a world which in one part or another is still unknown but which exists outside (Hume)—all this the sheerest is nonsense, Schrulle, crotchet, invention. 3) In the theory of knowledge, as in every other branch of
- science, we must think dialectically, that is, we must not regard our knowledge as ready-made and unalterable, but must determine how *knowledge* emerges from *ignorance*, how incomplete, inexact knowledge becomes more complete and more exact.

Lenin, Materialism and Empirio-Criticism (1908)

Once we accept the point of view that human knowledge develops from ignorance, we shall find millions of examples of it just as simple as the discovery of alizarin in coal tar, millions of observations not only in the history of science and technology but in the everyday life of each and every one of us that illustrate the transformation of "things-in-themselves" into

Lenin, Materialism and Empirio-Criticism (1908)

It goes without saying that in examining the connection between one of the schools of modern physicists and the rebirth of philosophical idealism, it is far from being our intention to deal with specific physical theories. What interests us exclusively is the epistemological conclusions that follow from certain definite propositions and generally known discoveries. Our object, therefore, will be confined to explaining clearly the essence of the difference between these various trends and the relation in which they stand to the fundamental lines of philosophy.

Lenin, <u>The Recent Revolution in Natural Science and Philosophical Idealism</u> (1908)

Behind the epistemological scholasticism of empirio-criticism one must not fail to see the struggle of parties in philosophy, a struggle which in the last analysis reflects the tendencies and ideology of the antagonistic classes in modern society.

Lenin, <u>The Recent Revolution in Natural Science and Philosophical Idealism</u>, Conclusion (1908)

The art of any propagandist and agitator consists in his ability to find the best means of influencing any given audience, by presenting a definite truth, in such a way as to make it most convincing, most easy to digest, most graphic, and most strongly impressive.

Lenin, <u>The Slogans and Organisation of Social-Democratic</u> <u>Work</u> (1919)

All official and liberal science defends wage-slavery, whereas Marxism has declared relentless war on that slavery.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of</u> Marxism (1913)

The Marxist doctrine is omnipotent because it is true. It is comprehensive and harmonious, and provides men with an integral world outlook irreconcilable with any form of superstition, reaction, or defence of bourgeois oppression. It is the legitimate successor to the best that man produced in the nineteenth century, as represented by German philosophy, English political economy and French socialism.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of</u> Marxism (1913)

Where the bourgeois economists saw a relation between things (the exchange of one commodity for another) Marx revealed a relation between people.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

Capital, created by the labour of the worker, crushes the worker, ruining small proprietors and creating an army of unemployed.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

By destroying small-scale production, capital leads to an increase in productivity of labour and to the creation of a monopoly position for the associations of big capitalists.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

Capitalism has triumphed all over the world, but this triumph is only the prelude to the triumph of labour over capital.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

When feudalism was overthrown and "free" capitalist society appeared in the world, it at once became apparent that this freedom meant a new system of oppression and exploitation of the working people.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

People always have been the foolish victims of deception and self-deception in politics, and they always will be until they have learnt to seek out the interests of some class or other behind all moral, religious, political and social phrases, declarations and promises.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

And there is only one way of smashing the resistance of those classes, and that is to find, in the very society which surrounds us, the forces which can—and, owing to their social position, must—constitute the power capable of sweeping away the old and creating the new, and to enlighten and organise those forces for the struggle.

Lenin, <u>The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism</u> (1913)

I am in general trying to read Hegel materialistically: Hegel is materialism which has been stood on its head (according to Engels) – that is to say, I cast aside for the most part God, the Absolute, the Pure Idea, etc.

Lenin, Conspectus of Hegel's Logic (1914)

Dialectics is the teaching which shows how *Opposites* can be and how they happen to be (how they become) *identical*,—under what conditions they are identical, becoming transformed into one another,—why the human mind should grasp these opposites not as dead, rigid, but as living, conditional, mobile, becoming transformed into one another.

Lenin, Conspectus of Hegel's Logic (1914)

These parts of the work should be called: "a best means for getting a headache!"

Lenin, Conspectus of Hegel's Logic (1914)

It is impossible completely to understand Marx's *Capital*, and especially its first Chapter, without having thoroughly studied and understood the *whole* of Hegel's *Logic*. Consequently, half a century later none of the Marxists understood Marx!!

Lenin, Conspectus of Hegel's Logic (1914)

Dialectics as living, many-sided knowledge (with the number of sides eternally increasing), with an infinite number of shades of every approach and approximation to reality (with a philosophical system growing into a whole out of each shade)

Lenin, Summary of Dialectics (1914)

Philosophical idealism is only nonsense from the standpoint of crude, simple, metaphysical materialism. From the standpoint of dialectical materialism, on the other hand, philosophical idealism is a one-sided, exaggerated, development (inflation, distension) of one of the features, aspects, facets of knowledge, into an absolute, divorced from matter, from nature,

apotheosised.

Lenin, Summary of Dialectics (1914)

Human knowledge is not (or does not follow) a straight line, but a curve, which endlessly approximates a series of circles, a spiral. Any fragment, segment, section of this curve can be transformed (transformed one-sidedly) into an independent, complete, straight line, which then (if one does not see the wood for the trees) leads into the quagmire, into clerical obscurantism (where it is *anchored* by the class interests of the ruling classes).

Lenin, Summary of Dialectics (1914)

To the socialist it is not the horrors of war that are the hardest to endure ... but the horrors of the treachery shown by the leaders of present day socialism, the horrors of the collapse of the present-day International.

Lenin, The European War and International Socialism (1914)

War cannot be abolished unless classes are abolished and Socialism is created.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

We fully regard civil wars, i.e., wars waged by the oppressed class against the oppressing class, slaves against slave-owners, serfs against land-owners, and wage-workers against the bourgeoisie, as legitimate, progressive and necessary.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

If tomorrow, Morocco were to declare war on France, India on England, Persia or China on Russia, and so forth, those would be "just" "defensive" wars, *irrespective* of who attacked first; and every Socialist would sympathise with the victory of the oppressed, dependent, unequal states against the oppressing, slave-owning, predatory "great" powers.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

The working class cannot play its world-revolutionary role unless it wages a ruthless struggle against this renegacy. spinelessness, subservience to opportunism and unexampled vulgarization of the theories of Marxism.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

Convert the imperialist war into civil war.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

A revolutionary class cannot but wish for the defeat of its government in a reactionary war.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

Socialists must explain to the masses that they have no other road of salvation except the revolutionary overthrow of "their" governments, and that advantage must be taken of these governments' embarrassments in the present war precisely for this purpose.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

Socialists cannot achieve their great aim without fighting against all oppression of nations.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

The Socialists of *oppressed* nations must, in their turn, unfailingly fight for the complete (including organisational) unity of the *workers* of the oppressed and oppressing nationalities.

Lenin, Socialism and War (1915)

The war of 1914-18 was imperialist (that is, an annexationist, predatory, war of plunder) on the part of both sides; it was a war for the division of the world, for the partition and repartition of colonies and spheres of influence of finance capital.

Lenin, <u>Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism</u> (1914)

We Social-Democrats always stand for democracy, not "in the name of capitalism," but in the name of clearing the path for *our* movement, which clearing is impossible without the development of capitalism.

Lenin, Letter to Inessa Armand (1916)

Monopolies, oligarchy, the striving for domination and not for freedom, the exploitation of an increasing number of small or weak nations by a handful of the richest or most powerful nations — all these have given birth to those distinctive characteristics of imperialism which compel us to define it as parasitic or decaying capitalism.

Lenin, Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism (1914)

When nine-tenths of Africa had been seized (by 1900), when the whole world had been divided up, there was inevitably ushered in the era of monopoly possession of colonies and, consequently, of particularly intense struggle for the division and the redivision of the world.

Lenin, <u>Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism</u> (1914)

The so-called Great Powers have long been exploiting and enslaving a whole number of small and weak nations. And the imperialist war is a war for the division and redivision of this kind of booty.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

It is not done in modern socialist parties to talk or even think about the significance of this idea, — the "withering away" of the state.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

A standing army and police are the chief instruments of state power.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

Our Socialist-Revolutionaries and Mensheviks themselves share, and instil into the minds of the people, the false notion that universal suffrage "in the present-day state" is really capable of revealing the will of the majority of the working people and of securing its realization.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

The working class must break up, smash the "ready-made state machinery," and not confine itself merely to laying hold of it.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

Democracy is a form of the state, it represents, on the one hand, the organized, systematic use of force against persons; but, on the other hand, it signifies the formal recognition of equality of citizens, the equal right of all to determine the structure of, and to administer, the state.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

Democracy for an insignificant minority, democracy for the rich — that is the democracy of capitalist society.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

The oppressed are allowed once every few years to decide which particular representatives of the oppressing class shall represent and repress them in parliament.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

The dictatorship of the proletariat, i.e., the organization of the vanguard of the oppressed as the ruling class for the purpose of suppressing the oppressors, cannot result merely in an expansion of democracy. Simultaneously with an immense expansion of democracy, which for the first time becomes democracy for the poor, democracy for the people, and not democracy for the money-bags, the dictatorship of the proletariat imposes a series of restrictions on the freedom of

the oppressors, the exploiters, the capitalists.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

And so in capitalist society we have a democracy that is curtailed, wretched, false, a democracy only for the rich, for the minority. The dictatorship of the proletariat, the period of transition to communism, will for the first time create democracy for the people, for the majority, along with the necessary suppression of the exploiters, of the minority.

Lenin, State and Revolution (1917)

In our attitude towards the war, which under the new government of Lvov and Co. unquestionably remains on Russia's part a predatory imperialist war owing to the capitalist nature of that government, not the slightest concession to "revolutionary defencism" is permissible.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

In view of the undoubted honesty of those broad sections of the mass believers in revolutionary defencism who accept the war only as a necessity, and not as a means of conquest, in view of the fact that they are being deceived by the bourgeoisie, it is necessary with particular thoroughness, persistence and patience to explain their error to them, and to prove that without overthrowing capital *it is impossible* to end the war by a truly democratic peace.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

The masses must be made to see that the Sovietsof Workers' Deputies are the *only possible* form of revolutionary government.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

Abolition of the police, the army and the bureaucracy. The salaries of all officials, all of whom are elective and displaceable at any time, not to exceed the average wage of a competent worker.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

It is not our *immediate* task to "introduce" socialism, but only to bring social production and the distribution of products at once under the *control* of the Soviets of Workers' Deputies.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

It is, of course, much easier to shout, abuse, and howl than to attempt to relate, to explain.

Lenin, April Theses (1917)

A party is the vanguard of a class, and its duty is to lead the masses and not merely to reflect the average political level of the masses.

Lenin, Speech On The Agrarian Question November 14 (1917)

It is the duty of the revolution to put an end to compromise, and to put an end to compromise means taking the path of socialist

revolution.

Lenin, Speech On The Agrarian Question November 14 (1917)

The Russian is a bad worker compared with people in advanced countries. It could not be otherwise under the tsarist regime and in view of the persistence of the hangover from serfdom. The task that the Soviet government must set the people in all its scope is - learn to work. The Taylor system, the last word of capitalism in this respect, like all capitalist progress, is a combination of the refined brutality of bourgeois exploitation and a number of the greatest scientific achievements in the

Lenin, The Immediate Task of the Soviet Government (1918)

Human child birth is an act which transforms the woman into an almost lifeless, bloodstained heap of flesh, tortured, tormented and driven frantic by pain.

Lenin, Prophetic Words (1918)

Let the "socialist" snivellers croak, let the bourgeoisie rage and fume, but only people who shut their eyes so as not to see, and stuff their ears so as not to hear, can fail to notice that all over the world the birth pangs of the old, capitalist society, which is pregnant with socialism, have begun.

Lenin, Prophetic Words (1918)

The passing of state power from one *class* to another is the first, the principal, the basic sign of a *revolution*, both in the strictly scientific and in the practical political meaning of that term. To this extent, the bourgeois, or the bourgeois-democratic, revolution in Russia is *completed*.

Lenin, Letters on Tactics (1918)

The Bolshevik slogans and ideas *on the whole* have been confirmed by history; but concretely things have worked out *differently*; they are more original, more peculiar, more variated than anyone could have expected...

Lenin, Letters on Tactics (1918)

"The revolutionary-democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry" has already become a reality in the Russian revolution, for this "formula" envisages only a *relation of classes*, and not a *concrete political institution implementing* this relation.

Lenin, <u>Letters on Tactics</u> (1918)

The crisis in Germany has only begun. It will inevitably end in the transfer of political power to the German proletariat. The Russian proletariat is following events with the keenest attention and enthusiasm. Now even the blindest workers in the various countries will see that the Bolsheviks were right in basing their whole tactics on the support of the world workers' revolution.

Lenin, <u>Letter To A Joint Session Of The All-Russia Central Executive Committee</u> (1918)

In the course of two years Soviet power in one of the most backward countries of Europe did more to emancipate women and to make their status equal to that of the "strong" sex than all the advanced, enlightened, "democratic" republics of the world did in the course of 130 years.

Lenin, Soviet Power and the Status of Women (1919)

Down with this contemptible fraud! There cannot be, nor is there nor will there ever be "equality" between the oppressed and the oppressors, between the exploited and the exploiters. There cannot be, nor is there nor will there ever be real "freedom" as long as there is no freedom for women from the privileges which the law grants to men, as long as there is no freedom for the workers from the yoke of capital, and no freedom for the toiling peasants from the yoke of the capitalists, landlords and merchants.

Lenin, Soviet Power and the Status of Women (1919)

Bourgeois democracy is democracy of pompous phrases, solemn words, exuberant promises and the high-sounding slogans of freedom and equality. But, in fact, it screens the non-freedom and inferiority of women, the non-freedom and inferiority of the toilers and exploited.

Lenin, Soviet Power and the Status of Women (1919)

Modern monopolist capitalism on a world-wide scale — imperialist wars are absolutely inevitable under *such* an economic system, *as long as* private property in the means of production exists.

Lenin, Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism (1920)

We must display determination, endurance, firmness and unanimity. We must stop at nothing. Everybody and everything must be used to save the rule of the workers and peasants, to save communism.

Lenin, <u>Speech to Third All-Russia Congress of Textile</u> <u>Workers</u> (1920)

But the dictatorship of the proletariat cannot be exercised through an organisation embracing the whole of that class, because in all capitalist countries (and not only over here, in one of the most backward) the proletariat is still so divided, so degraded, and so corrupted in parts (by imperialism in some countries) that an organisation taking in the whole proletariat cannot directly exercise proletarian dictatorship.

Lenin, <u>The Trade Unions, The Present Situation and Trotsky's</u> <u>Mistakes</u> (1920)

The Bolsheviks could not have retained power for two and a half months, let alone two and a half years, without the most rigorous and truly iron discipline in our Party.

Lenin, <u>Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder</u> (1920)

How is the discipline of the proletariat's revolutionary party maintained? How is it tested? How is it reinforced? First, by the class-consciousness of the proletarian vanguard and by its devotion to the revolution, by its tenacity, self-sacrifice and heroism. Second, by its ability to link up, maintain the closest contact, and—if you wish—merge, in certain measure, with the broadest masses of the working people—primarily with the proletariat, but also with the non-proletarian masses of working people. Third, by the correctness of the political leadership exercised by this vanguard, by the correctness of its political strategy and tactics, provided the broad masses have seen, from their own experience, that they are correct.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

Russia achieved Marxism—the only correct revolutionary theory—through the *agony* she experienced in the course of half a century of unparalleled torment and sacrifice, of unparalleled revolutionary heroism, incredible energy, devoted searching, study, practical trial, disappointment, verification, and comparison with European experience.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

Thanks to the political emigration caused by tsarism, revolutionary Russia acquired a wealth of international links and excellent information on the forms and theories of the world revolutionary movement, such as no other country possessed.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

Bolshevism went through fifteen years of practical history (1903-17) unequalled anywhere in the world in its wealth of experience. During those fifteen years, no other country knew anything even approximating to that revolutionary experience, that rapid and varied succession of different forms of the movement—legal and illegal, peaceful and stormy, underground and open, local circles and mass movements, and parliamentary and terrorist forms.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

It is at moments of need that one learns who one's friends are. Defeated armies learn their lesson.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

Experience has proved that, on certain very important questions of the proletarian revolution, *all* countries will inevitably have to do what Russia has done.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

Without such thorough, circumspect and long preparations [since 1903], we could not have achieved victory in October 1917, or have consolidated that victory.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

To reject compromises "on principle," to reject the permissibility of compromises in general, no matter of what kind, is childishness. A political leader who desires to be useful to the revolutionary proletariat must be able to distinguish *concrete* cases of compromises that are inexcusable and are an expression of opportunism and *treachery*.

Lenin, <u>Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder</u> (1920)

In 1912 the *agent provocateur* Malinovsky got into the Bolshevik Central Committee. He betrayed scores and scores of the best and most loyal comrades; he was obliged, with the other, to assist in the education of scores and scores of thousands of new Bolsheviks through the medium of the legal press.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

If you want to help the "masses" and win the sympathy and support of the "masses," you should not fear difficulties, or pinpricks, chicanery, insults and persecution from the "leaders," but must absolutely work wherever the masses are to be found.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

All efforts and all attention should now be concentrated on the *next* step — the search after forms of the *transition* or the *approach* to the proletarian revolution.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

One must not count in thousands, like the propagandist belonging to a small group that has not yet given leadership to the masses; in these circumstances one must count in millions and tens of millions.

Lenin, <u>Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder</u> (1920)

Any army which does not train to use all the weapons, all the means and methods of warfare that the enemy possesses, or may possess, is behaving in an unwise or even criminal manner. This applies to politics even more than it does to the art of war.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

It is not difficult to be a revolutionary when revolution has already broken out and is in spate, when all people are joining the revolution just because they are carried away, because it is the vogue, and sometimes even from careerist motives. It is far more difficult—and far more precious—to be a revolutionary when the conditions for direct, open, really mass and really revolutionary struggle *do not yet exist*.

Lenin, Left-Wing Communism: An Infantile Disorder (1920)

One of the biggest and most dangerous mistakes made by Communists is the idea that a revolution can be made by revolutionaries alone. On the contrary, to be successful, all serious revolutionary work requires that the idea that revolutionaries are capable of playing the part only of the vanguard of the truly virile and advanced class must be understood and translated into action.

Lenin, The Significance of Militant Materialism (1922)

Without an alliance with non-Communists in the most diverse spheres of activity there can be no question of any successful communist construction.

Lenin, The Significance of Militant Materialism (1922)

The most important thing is to know how to awaken in the still undeveloped masses an intelligent attitude towards religious questions and an intelligent criticism of religions.

Lenin, <u>The Significance of Militant Materialism</u> (1922)

No natural science can hold its own in the struggle against the onslaught of bourgeois ideas and the restoration of the bourgeois world outlook unless it stands on solid philosophical ground. In order to hold his own in this struggle and carry it to a victorious finish, the natural scientist must be a modern materialist, a conscious adherent of the materialism represented by Marx, i.e., he must be a dialectical materialist.

Lenin, The Significance of Militant Materialism (1922)

Modern natural scientists (if they know how to seek, and if we learn to help them) will find in the Hegelian dialectics, materialistically interpreted, a series of answers to the philosophical problems which are being raised by the revolution in natural science.

Lenin, The Significance of Militant Materialism (1922)

The prime factors in the question of stability are such members of the C.C. as Stalin and Trotsky. I think relations between them make up the greater part of the danger of a split.

Lenin, Letter to the Congress (1922)

Comrade Stalin, having become Secretary-General, has unlimited authority concentrated in his hands, and I am not sure whether he will always be capable of using that authority with sufficient caution.

Lenin, Letter to the Congress (1922)

Stalin is too rude and this defect, although quite tolerable in our midst and in dealing among us Communists, becomes intolerable in a Secretary-General. That is why I suggest that the comrades think about a way of removing Stalin from that post and appointing another man in his stead.

Lenin, <u>Letter to the Congress</u> (1922)

Our schoolteacher should be raised to a standard he has never achieved, and cannot achieve, in bourgeois society. This is a truism and requires no proof.

Lenin, Pages from a Diary (1923)

If a definite level of culture is required for the building of socialism (although nobody can say just what that definite 'level of culture' is, for it differs in every Western European country), why cannot we began by first achieving the prerequisites for that definite level of culture in a revolutionary way, and then, with the aid of the workers' and peasants' government and Soviet system, proceed to overtake the other nations?

Lenin, Our Revolution (1923)

Napoleon, I think, wrote: "On s'engage et puis ... on voit." rendered freely this means: "First engage in a serious battle and then see what happens." Well, we did first engage in a serious battle in October 1917. And now there can be no doubt that in the main we have been victorious.

Lenin, Our Revolution (1923)

We must follow the rule: Better fewer, but better. We must follow the rule: Better get good human material in two or even three years than work in haste without hope of getting any at all.

Lenin, <u>Better fewer, but Better</u> (1923)

While the bourgeois state methodically concentrates all its efforts on doping the urban workers, adapting all the literature published at state expense and at the expense of the tsarist and bourgeois parties for this purpose, we can and must utilise our political power to make the urban worker an effective vehicle of communist ideas among the rural proletariat.

Lenin, Pages from a Diary (1923)

Without revolutionary theory there can be no revolutionary movement.

Lenin, What Is To Be Done?, "Dogmatism And 'Freedom of Criticism'" (1902)

So long as the state exists there is no freedom. When there is freedom, there will be no state.

Lenin, The State and Revolution (1917)

Democracy means equality. The great significance of the proletariat's struggle for equality and of equality as a slogan will be clear if we correctly interpret it as meaning the abolition of classes. But democracy means only formal equality. And as soon as equality is achieved for all members of society in relation to ownership of the means of production, that is, equality of labor and wages, humanity will inevitably be confronted with the question of advancing father, from formal equality to actual equality, i.e., to the operation of the rule "from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs".

Lenin, The State and Revolution (1917)

We say: our aim is to achieve a socialist system of society, which, by eliminating the division of mankind into classes, by eliminating all exploitation of man by man and nation by nation, will inevitably eliminate the very possibility of war.

Lenin, War and Revolution (1917)

The real education of the masses can never be separated from their independent political, and especially revolutionary, struggle. Only struggle educates the exploited class. Only struggle discloses to it the magnitude of its own power, widens its horizon, enhances its abilities, clarifies its mind, forges its will.

Lenin, <u>Lecture on the 1905 Revolution</u> (1917)

Capital is an international force. To vanquish it, an international workers' alliance, an international workers' brotherhood, is needed.

We are opposed to national enmity and discord, to national exclusiveness. We are internationalists.

Lenin, <u>Letter to the Workers and Peasants of the</u> Ukraine (1919)

[...] I must say that the tasks of the youth in general, and of the Young Communist Leagues and all other organisations in particular, might be summed up in a single word: learn.

Lenin, The Tasks of the Youth Leagues (1920)

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